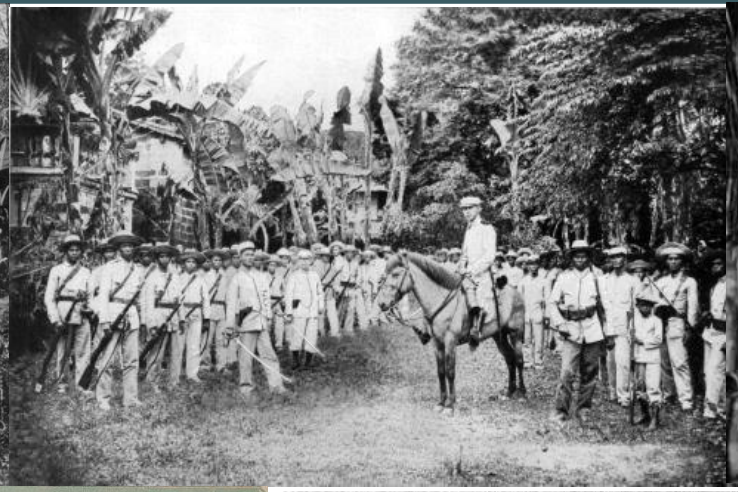
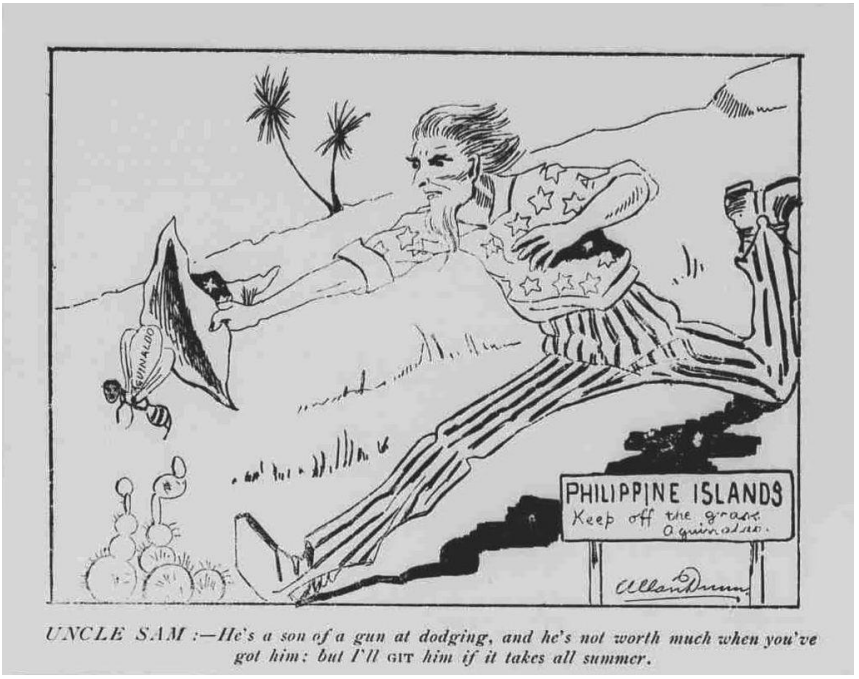
Philippine–American War

Fighting between the forces of the United States and the forces of the Philippine Republic broke out on February 4, 1899

Philippine–American War 1899 - 1902





Philippine–American War 1899 - 1902

The Philippine–American War, known alternatively as the Philippine Insurrection, Filipino–American War, or Tagalog Insurgency, was fought between the First Philippine Republic and the United States from February 4, 1899, until July 2, 1902.

Tensions arose after the United States annexed the Philippines under the Treaty of Paris at the conclusion of the Spanish–American War rather than acknowledging the Philippines' declaration of independence. The war can be seen as a continuation of the Philippine struggle for independence that began in 1896 with the Philippine Revolution against Spanish rule. Fighting between the forces of the United States and the forces of the Philippine Republic broke out on February 4, 1899, in what became known as the Battle of Manila. On February 4, 1899, The Philippine Council of Government issued a proclamation urging the people to continue the war. Philippine President Emilio Aguinaldo was captured on March 23, 1901, and the war was officially declared ended by the US on July 2, 1902. However, some Philippine groups—some led by veterans of the Katipunan, a Philippine revolutionary society that had launched the revolution against Spain—continued to fight for several more years. Other groups, including the Muslim Moro peoples of the southern Philippines and quasi-Catholic Pulahan religious movements, continued hostilities in remote areas.

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The resistance in the Moro-dominated provinces in the south, called the Moro Rebellion by the Americans, ended with their final defeat at the Battle of Bud Bagsak on June 15, 1913.

The war resulted in at least 200,000 Filipino civilian deaths, mostly from famine and diseases such as cholera. Some estimates for civilian dead reach up to a million. Atrocities were committed during the conflict by both sides, including torture, mutilation, and executions. In retaliation for Filipino guerrilla warfare tactics, the U.S. carried out reprisals and scorched earth campaigns and forcibly relocated many civilians to concentration camps, where thousands died. The war and subsequent occupation by the U.S. changed the culture of the islands, leading to the rise of Protestantism, disestablishment of the Catholic Church, and the rise of English to the islands as the primary language of government, education, business, and industry.

The U.S. annexation and war sparked political backlash from anti-imperialists in the U.S. Senate, who argued that the war was a definite example of U.S. imperialism, and that it was an inherent contradiction of the founding principles of the United States contained in the Declaration of Independence.

In 1902, the United States Congress passed the Philippine Organic Act, which provided for the creation of the Philippine Assembly, with members to be elected by Filipino males (women did not have the right to vote until a 1937 plebiscite). This act was superseded by the 1916 Jones Act (Philippine Autonomy Act), which contained the first formal and official declaration of the United States government's commitment to eventually grant independence to the Philippines.

The 1934 Tydings–McDuffie Act (Philippine Independence Act) created the Commonwealth of the Philippines the following year, increasing self-governance, and established a process towards full independence (originally scheduled for 1944, but delayed by World War II and the Japanese occupation of the Philippines). The United States eventually granted full Philippine independence in 1946 through the Treaty of Manila.

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Philippine Revolution

Andrés Bonifacio was a warehouseman and clerk from Manila. On July 7, 1892, he established the Katipunan, a revolutionary organization formed to gain independence from Spanish colonial rule by armed revolt. In August 1896, the Katipunan was discovered by the Spanish authorities and thus launched its revolution. Fighters in Cavite province won early victories. One of the most influential and popular leaders from Cavite was Emilio Aguinaldo, mayor of Cavite El Viejo (modern-day Kawit), who gained control of much of the eastern portion of Cavite province. Eventually, Aguinaldo and his faction gained control of the revolution. After Aguinaldo was elected president of a revolutionary government superseding the Katipunan at the Tejeros Convention on March 22, 1897, his government had Bonifacio executed for treason after a show trial on May 10, 1897.

Aguinaldo's exile and return

By late 1897, after a succession of defeats for the revolutionary forces, the Spanish had regained control over most of rebel territory. Aguinaldo and Spanish Governor-General Fernando Primo de Rivera entered into armistice negotiations while Spanish forces surrounded Aguinaldo's hideout and base in Biak-na-Bato in Bulacan province.
Aguinaldo reorganized his "Republic of the Philippines" in the meantime. On December 14, 1897, an agreement was reached in which the Spanish colonial government would pay Aguinaldo $MXN800,000 in Manila—in three installments if Aguinaldo would go into exile outside of the Philippines. Upon receiving the first installment, Aguinaldo and 25 of his closest associates left their headquarters at Biak-na-Bato and made their way to Hong Kong, in accord with the agreement.

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Upon receiving the first installment, Aguinaldo and 25 of his closest associates left their headquarters at Biak-na-Bato and made their way to Hong Kong, in accord with the agreement. Before his departure, Aguinaldo denounced the Philippine Revolution, exhorted Filipino rebel combatants to disarm, and declared those who continued hostilities and waging war to be bandits. Despite Aguinaldo's denunciation, some revolutionaries continued their armed revolt against the Spanish colonial government. Aguinaldo claimed that the Spanish never paid the agreed second and third installments.

On April 22, 1898, while in exile, Aguinaldo had a private meeting in Singapore with United States Consul E. Spencer Pratt, after which he decided to again lead the revolution. According to Aguinaldo, Pratt had communicated with Commodore George Dewey (commander of the Asiatic Squadron of the United States Navy) by telegram and passed assurances from Dewey to Aguinaldo that the United States would recognize the independence of the Philippines. Pratt reportedly stated that there was no necessity for entering into a written agreement because the word of the Admiral and of the United States Consul were equivalent to the official word of the United States. With these assurances, Aguinaldo returned to the Philippines.

Filipino historian Teodoro Agoncillo claimed that the Americans first approached Aguinaldo in Hong Kong and Singapore to persuade him to cooperate with Dewey in wresting power from the Spanish. He conceded that Dewey may not have promised Aguinaldo American recognition and Philippine independence (Dewey had no authority to make such promises). He asserted that Dewey and Aguinaldo had an informal alliance to fight Spain, that Dewey breached that alliance by making secret arrangements for a Spanish surrender to American forces, and that he later treated Aguinaldo badly. Agoncillo concluded that the American attitude towards Aguinaldo "... showed that they came to the Philippines not as a friend, but as an enemy masking as a friend.

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Aguinaldo traveled from Singapore and arrived in Hong Kong on May 1, the day that Dewey's naval forces destroyed Rear-Admiral Patricio Montojo's Spanish Pacific Squadron at the Battle of Manila Bay. Aguinaldo departed Hong Kong aboard USRC McCulloch on May 17 and arrived in Cavite on May 19.

Less than three months after Aguinaldo's return, the Philippine Revolutionary Army had conquered nearly all of the Philippines. With the exception of Manila, which was surrounded by revolutionary forces some 12,000 strong, the Filipinos controlled the islands. Aguinaldo declared independence at his house in Cavite El Viejo on June 12, 1898.
The Philippine Declaration of Independence was not recognized by either the United States or Spain, and the Spanish government ceded the Philippines to the United States in the 1898 Treaty of Paris, which was signed on December 10, 1898, in consideration for an indemnity for Spanish expenses and assets lost.

Upon his return in May 1898, Aguinaldo established a "Dictatorial Government" with himself as "Dictator", under which Philippine independence was declared. About a month later, he established a "Revolutionary Government" in its place and retook the title of President. He then organized a congress in Malolos, Bulacan, to draft a constitution. This led to the formal establishment of the Philippine Republic by late January 1899. This government was later known as the First Philippine Republic, and also as the Malolos Republic after its capital. Aguinaldo, who had again been ratified as president by the Malolos congress on January 1, is today officially considered as "the first President of the Republic of the Philippines" by the Philippine government.

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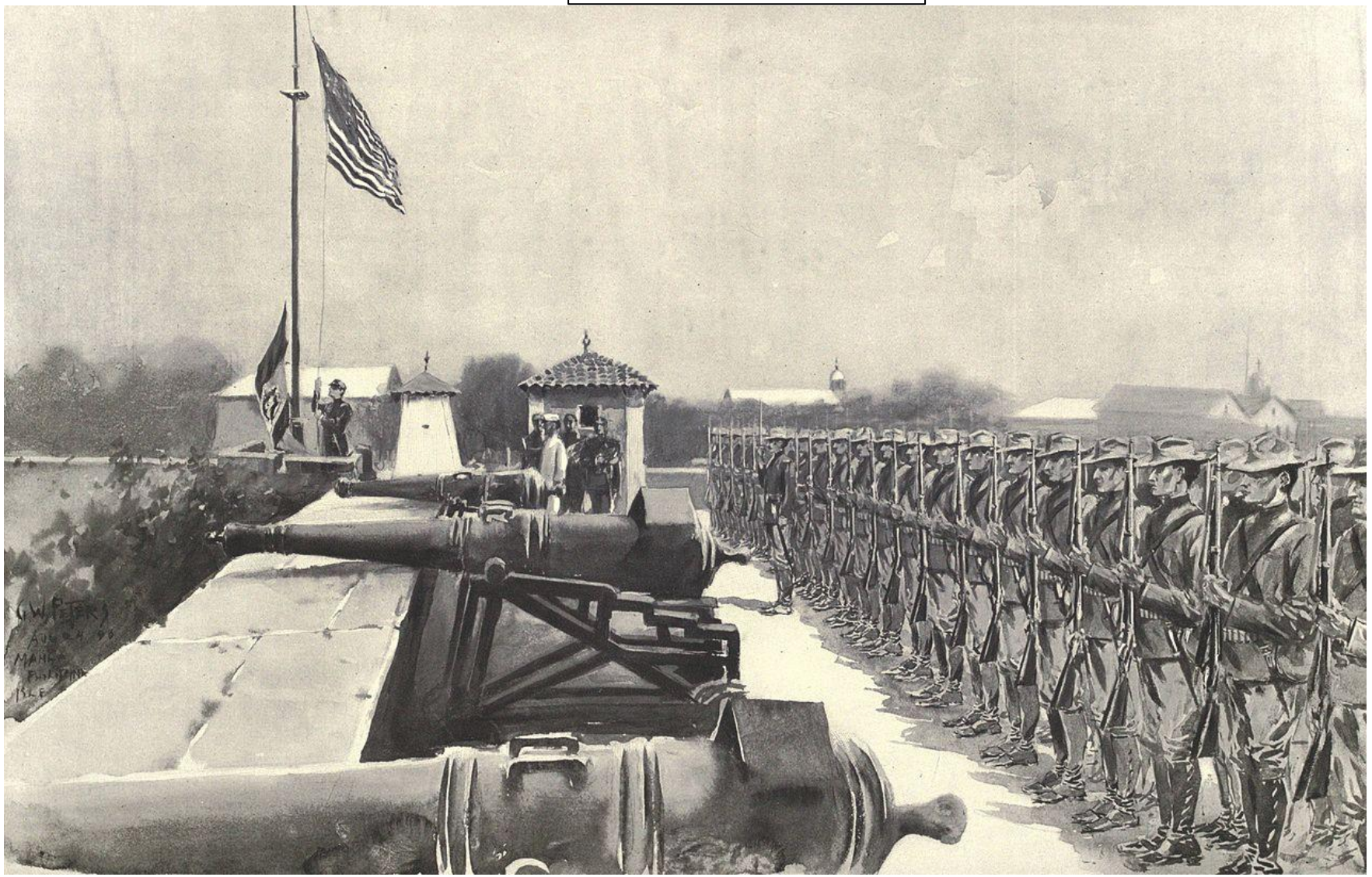
Battle of Manila



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The Battle of Manila (Filipino: Labanan sa Maynila; Spanish: Batalla de Manila), sometimes called the Mock Battle of Manila, was a land engagement which took place in Manila on August 13, 1898, at the end of the Spanish–American War, four months after the decisive victory by Commodore Dewey's Asiatic Squadron at the Battle of Manila Bay. The belligerents were Spanish forces led by Governor-General of the Philippines Fermín Jáudenes, and American forces led by United States Army Major General Wesley Merritt and United States Navy Commodore George Dewey. American forces were supported by units of the Philippine Revolutionary Army, led by Emilio Aguinaldo.
The battle that took place in Manila during the Philippine-Spanish War is commonly referred to as the "Mock battle of Manila". This unique and covert operation was meticulously planned by the local commanders of the Spanish and American forces, who were legally at war with each other. Their clandestine collaboration aimed to orchestrate a simulated battle that would facilitate the transfer of control over the city center from the Spanish to the Americans, all while ensuring that the Philippine Revolutionary Army would be kept at bay.

The underlying motivations for this meticulously coordinated sham battle were multi-faceted, encompassing both racist and political elements. Spain, being a predominantly white nation, sought to avoid perceived humiliation on the international stage by losing to the predominantly nonwhite indigenous Austronesians, Negritos, Malay Filipinos, and mestizos of Hispanic and Chinese descent who comprised the Filipino forces.
By preventing the Filipino forces from achieving victory at this crucial juncture, Spain hoped to maintain its image and reputation. Consequently, the outcome of this strategic maneuver left the American forces in control of Intramuros, the heart of Manila, while being encircled by Philippine revolutionary forces.

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As a result of the battle, American forces gained control of Intramuros, the center of Manila, while being surrounded by Philippine revolutionary forces. This event set the stage for the Battle of Manila in 1899 and marked the beginning of the Philippine–American War.

Philippines is known for thousands of tropical islands, white sandy beaches, and densely populated cities but little recognized that it also has the longest and most multicultural histories in Asia. It's capital, Metro Manila, is an enormous city, full of places to explore and Filipino culture experience. Intramuros, known as the "Walled City", is now the oldest and most historic district in the modern day capital of Manila. A district away from the bustle of the city, rediscovering freedom from within its walls.

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After the American victory in Manila Bay on May 1, 1898, the United States Navy, commanded by Admiral George Dewey, blockaded the city of Manila. The United States organized the Eighth Army Corps, known as the Philippine Expeditionary Force, under Major General Wesley Merritt. On May 16, the vanguard of the force departed from San Francisco under Brigadier General Thomas M. Anderson. Merritt requested information on the strength of the Spanish in the Philippines, which was provided by the American consul in Hong Kong. The information revealed that the Spanish forces consisted of around 21,000 men, including 4,000 Filipinos, with the majority in Manila. However, Dewey's more accurate report showed that the Spanish forces numbered around 40,000 troops, including approximately 16,000 Filipinos, with about 15,000 situated in Manila along with nine artillery guns.

These revelations informed Major General Wesley Merritt and the Philippine Expeditionary Force of the formidable opposition they faced. With this knowledge, they could plan and strategize their campaign accordingly. The stage was set for an epic struggle as the United States aimed to confront and overcome the Spanish forces, securing their foothold in the Philippines and achieving victory in the Pacific.

By June, U.S. and Filipino forces had taken control of most of the islands, except for the walled city of Intramuros. The first contingent of American troops arrived in Cavite on June 30, the second under General Francis V. Greene on July 17, and the third under General Arthur MacArthur on July 30. By this time, some 12,000 U.S. troops had landed in the Philippines. By mid-June, some 40,000 Filipino revolutionaries under General Antonio Luna had dug fourteen miles of trenches around Manila. Filipino revolutionaries, seizing control of Manila's only pumping station, cut off the water supply to the city.

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Emilio Aguinaldo had presented surrender terms to Spanish Governor-General of the Philippines Basilio Augustín, who refused them initially, believing more Spanish troops would be sent to lift the siege. As the combined forces of Filipinos and Americans closed in, Augustín, realizing that his position was hopeless, secretly continued to negotiate with Aguinaldo, even offering ₱1 million, but the latter refused. When the Spanish parliament, the Cortes, learned of Governor-General Augustín's attempt to negotiate the surrender of the army to Filipinos under Aguinaldo, it was furious, and relieved Augustín of his duties as Governor-General, effective July 24, to be replaced by Fermin Jáudenes. On June 16, warships departed Spain to lift the siege, but they altered course for Cuba where a Spanish fleet was imperiled by the U.S. Navy. In August, life in Intramuros (the walled center of Manila), where the normal population of about ten thousand had swelled to about seventy thousand, had become unbearable. Realizing that it was only a matter of time before the city fell, and fearing vengeance and looting if the city fell to Filipino revolutionaries, Governor Jáudenes suggested to Dewey, through the Belgian consul, Édouard André, that the city be surrendered to the Americans after a short, "mock" battle. Dewey had initially rejected the suggestion because he lacked the troops to block the Filipino revolutionary forces, but when Merritt's troops became available he sent a message to Jáudenes, agreeing to the mock battle.

Merritt was eager to seize the city, but Dewey stalled while trying to work out a bloodless solution with Jáudenes. On August 4, Dewey and Merritt gave Jáudenes 48 hours to surrender, later extending the deadline by five days when it expired. Covert negotiations continued, with the details of the mock battle being arranged on August 10. The plan agreed to was that Dewey would begin a bombardment at 09:00 on August 13, shelling only Fort San Antonio Abad, a decrepit structure on the southern outskirts of Manila, and the impregnable walls of Intramuros.

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Simultaneously, Spanish forces would withdraw, Filipino revolutionaries would be checked, and U.S. forces would advance. Once a sufficient show of battle had been made, Dewey would hoist the signal "D.W.H.B." (meaning "Do you surrender), whereupon the Spanish would hoist a white flag and Manila would formally surrender to U.S. forces. Under this plan, Spanish forces would be defeated by American forces, while Filipino forces would not be allowed to enter the city. This minimized the risk of unnecessary casualties on all sides, while the Spanish would also avoid the shame of possibly having to surrender Intramuros to the Filipino forces.

On the evening of August 12, on orders of General Merritt, General Anderson notified Aguinaldo to forbid the insurgents under his command from entering Manila, stating "Do not let your troops enter Manila without the permission of the American commander. On this side of the Pasig River you will be under fire".
On August 13, with American commanders unaware that a peace protocol had been signed between Spain and the U.S. the previous day, Dewey began his bombardment as scheduled. Dewey directed his ship captains to spare Manila any serious damage, but gunners on one ship, unaware of the negotiated arrangements, scored several direct hits before its captain was able to cease firing and withdraw from the line.

General Greene's brigade pushed rapidly through Malate and over the bridges to occupy Binondo and San Miguel The advancing Americans made good use of new weapons, such as the M1897 Trench Gun which was ideal for close combat. General Arthur MacArthur Jr., advancing simultaneously on the Pasay road, encountered and overcame resistance at the blockhouses, trenches, and woods to his front, advanced and held the bridges and the town of Malate.

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This placed Manila in American possession, except for Intramuros. Shortly after entering Malate, U.S. troops observed a white flag displayed on the walls of Intramuros. Lieutenant Colonel C. A. Whittier, United States Volunteers, representing General Merritt, and Lieutenant Brumby, U.S. Navy, representing Admiral Dewey, were sent ashore to communicate with the Captain-General. General Merritt soon personally followed, met with Governor General Jáudenes, and concluded a preliminary agreement of the terms of capitulation.

Insurgents made an independent attack of their own, as planned, which promptly led to trouble with the Americans. At 08:00 that morning, Aguinaldo received a telegram from General Anderson, sternly warning him not to let his troops enter Manila without the consent of the American commander, who was situated on the south side of the Pasig River. General Anderson's request was ignored, and Aguinaldo's forces crowded forward alongside the American forces until they directly confronted the Spanish troops. Although the Spanish were waving a flag of truce, the insurgents fired on the Spanish forces, provoking return fire.

Though a bloodless mock battle had been planned, Spanish troops had opened fire in a skirmish which left six Americans and forty-nine Spaniards dead when Filipino revolutionaries, thinking that the attack was genuine, joined advancing U.S. troops. Except for the unplanned casualties, the battle had gone according to plan; the Spanish had surrendered the city to the Americans, and it had not fallen to the Filipino revolutionaries. 19 American soldiers were killed, and 103 more were wounded in this action.

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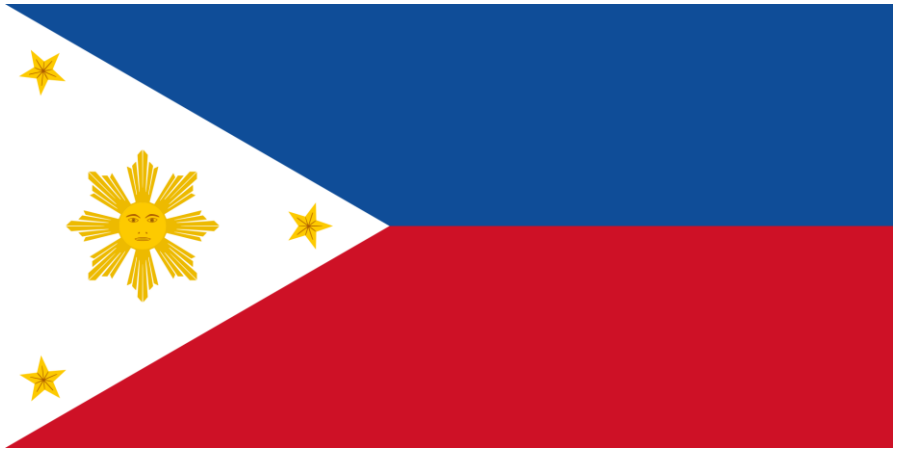
Casualties and losses

US:
4,200 killed, 2,818 wounded, several succumbed to disease

First Philippine Republic

About 10,000 killed (Emilio Aguinaldo estimate), 16,000–20,000 killed (American estimate)



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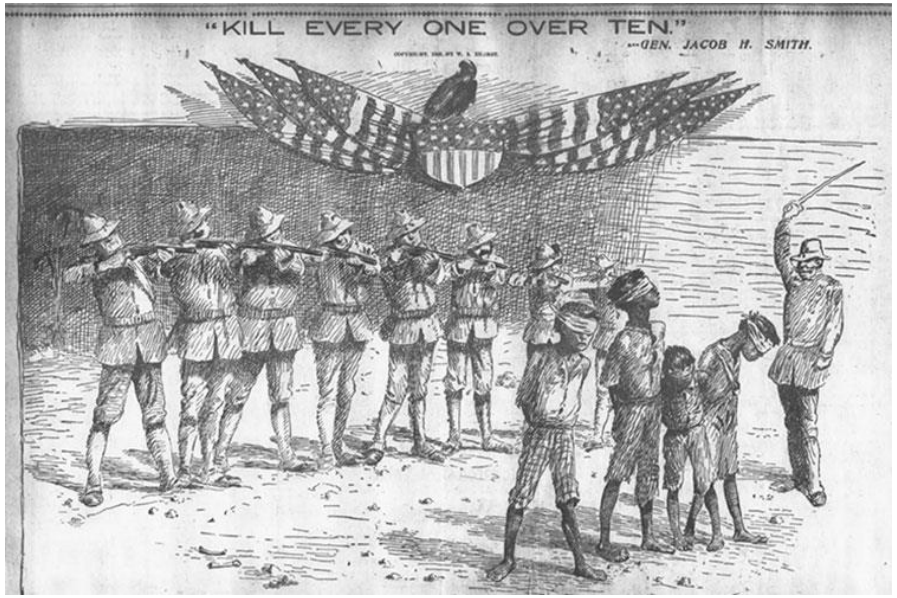
Filipino civilians: 200,000– 3 million? died, most because of famine and disease.

Professor Dylan Rodríguez, the U.S. still has a long way to go in acknowledging its own history of colonial violence, particularly the killing of hundreds of thousands — potentially millions — of people during the Philippine-American War (1899-1902), an event in history that is often ignored.

Hundreds of thousands were killed during the Philippine-American War. Some historians believe it to be in the millions. Why do you think this type of brutal violence in history stayed unacknowledged for so long.

The war was brutal on both sides. U.S. forces at times burned villages, implemented civilian reconcentration policies, and employed torture on suspected guerrillas, while Filipino fighters also tortured captured soldiers and terrorized civilians who cooperated with American forces. Many civilians died during the conflict as a result of the fighting, cholera and malaria epidemics, and food shortages caused by several agricultural catastrophes.



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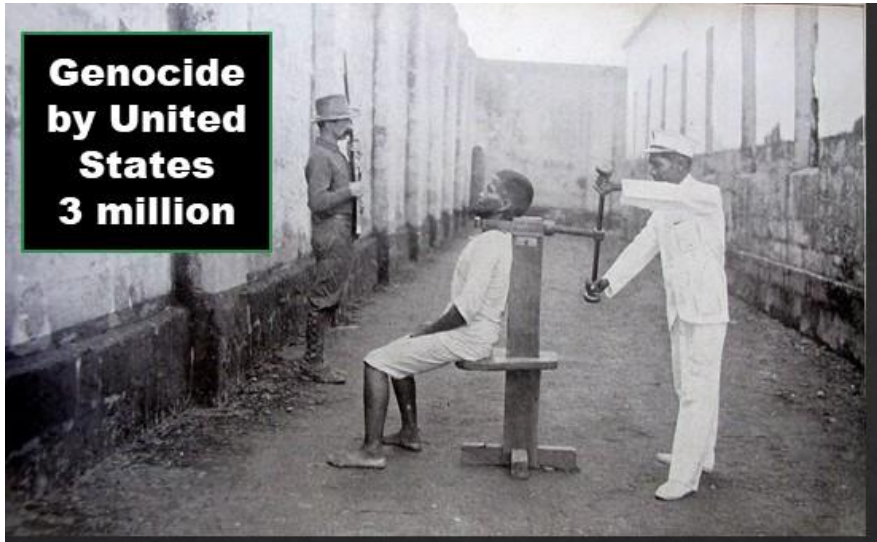

The Philippines Genocide 3 million Filipinos Killed

The Philippines Genocide is the genocide history forgot, you will find in history books the Filipino-American War of 1899-1902 but they fail to mention the genocide carried out by the United States of America on the people of the Philippines.

The History books that were written by the victors claim somewhere between 200,000 to 300,000 died in that period, which is still a large number considering the population of the Philippines at the time was no more than 9 million.

William Pomeroy's American Neocolonialism (1970) cites 600,000 Filipinos dead in Luzon alone by 1902. This is backed up by General Bell himself, who said: "We estimated that we killed one-sixth of the population of the main island of Luzon—some 600,000 people."

"The Theory and Fallacies of Counter-Insurgency," The Nation, August 2, 1971."the bloodiest colonial war (in proportion to population) ever fought by a white power in Asia; it cost the lives of 3,000,000 Filipinos." No doubt the Americans saw every Filipino as the enemy.

US Genocide 1899 - 1902